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ABSTRACT

This paper reviews some of the issues and concerns that have prompted the growth of interest in the demography of the family. It also examines a number of aspects of the family and the household structure of racial and ethnic minorities. The five racial minorities discussed are blacks, Chinese, Japanese, Filipinos and American Indians. The indicators examined for each group include: (1) age distribution, (2) family and household size, (3) persons not living in families, (4) distribution of households by life cycle stage, (5) characteristics of husband wife families, (6) female headed families and children living in two parent household, (7) families with non nuclear family members, and (8) living arrangements of certain categories of adults including young unmarried persons, recently married couples, separated and divorced persons without children, and separated and divorced mothers. The indicators were selected primarily on the basis of their utility with respect to assessing the impact of variation among racial and ethnic groups in family and household structure on measures of economic welfare and inequity. Results indicate that there is great diversity in the family and household structure among the racial and ethnic groups considered. (Author/AM)

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INDICATORS OF FAMILY AND HOUSEHOLD STRUCTURE OF RACIAL AND ETHNIC MINORITIES IN THE U. S.

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CDE Working Paper 77-29

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INTRODUCTION

One area of demography currently receiving increased attention is the study of familial processes and structures. A number of different subject areas fall under this rubric, including: studies of nuptiality, age at marriage, and assortative mating; studies of separation, divorce, and remarriage; studies of household size and composition and family living arrangements of the population; and various consequences or sequelae of the incidence and timing of these familial processes. (Some of this literature is reviewed in Sweet, 1977a)

In this paper we will review some of the issues and concerns that have prompted the recent growth of interest in the demography of the family. We will then turn to an examination of a number of aspects of family and household structure of racial and ethnic minorities. Planned extensions of this work will be reviewed in the conclusion of this paper.

Impetus to the study of household formation and structure has come from several sources.

(1) Effects of Household Structure on Measured Income Inequality -- Although it has long been known that differences in family size and composition may affect the measured "inequality" of an income distribution, several studies have recently appeared which attempt to measure the magnitude of these effects and to adjust for differences in family composition (see Plotnick and Skidmore, 1975; Rivlin, 1975; Paglin, 1975). One of the reasons for this new emphasis is a recognition that there are wide variations from one country to another in the patterns of household composition and household formation. The recent experience in the United States and in other Western countries indicates that there can be rather abrupt changes in the pattern of family and household living arrangements. Kuznets (1976) provides a detailed discussion of these in his "Demographic Aspects of the Size Distribution of Income."

One issue which has received some attention in the literature is that one way that disadvantaged persons may adapt to an inadequacy of economic resources is by modifying their household compositions. (See Tienda, 1980.) Rather than establishing a separate household, a young couple, young non-married adult, or elderly person or couple may share the household of a relative, thus taking advantage of "economies of scale" in providing housing services. The extent to which this practice occurs differentially among racial and ethnic minorities may vary depending on "cultural traditions" relating to kinship and the accessibility of relatives, as well as to the economic level of the group.

Differences in household composition can have an important effect on the measured income inequality and relative economic well-being of racial and ethnic minorities as compared with the majority white population. In fact, among disadvantaged minorities the relative disadvantage may be seriously understated if families are larger and tend to have more adult earners within them (Sweet, 1973, Chapter 6).

In a recent paper, Farley (1977) reviews the trends in inequality between Blacks and whites from the Second World War to 1974. He notes that between 1969 and 1975 the median income of all Black families (in constant dollars) fell although the median income of both major component family types -- husband-wife and female-headed families -- increased. However, during this period the proportion of families with female heads (whose median income is less than half that of husband-wife families) rose rapidly during the period.

In an analysis of change in the overall distribution of family income Treas and Walther (1977) found that within group income inequality declined considerably since 1951 for all family types and for unrelated individuals. However, the degree of inequality for the aggregate income distribution remained virtually unchanged over the period. Family and household types with relatively low incomes have increased in relative frequency, counteracting the effect of the decline in dispersion of the income distribution within family types.

A number of recent social trends have affected the aggregate pattern of living arrangements.

A. The rapid decline in fertility beginning in 1957 and accelerating in the early 1970s has considerably reduced the average number of

children per household and will continue to have this effect as the change accumulates through the life cycle.

B. In addition, historical fluctuations in fertility have affected the age composition of the population and thus the family composition distribution of the population.

C. There has been an abrupt rise in the rate of marital disruption and perhaps a very recent decline in the rate of remarriage.

D. The age at first marriage of both men and women has been increasing.

E. The living arrangements of single as well as separated, divorced, and widowed individuals have changed through time. There is a much greater propensity of individuals who are not married to form their own household and to live in one-person households or in small households which do not include a family grouping.

Each of these social trends may have differentially occurred in various racial and ethnic minorities.

(2) A second impetus to the demographic study of household structure and family function has been the concern with understanding the consequences of "welfare programs" on the family.

One of the major issues that has emerged in discussions of welfare reform has been the concern that the current, as well as proposed alternate, welfare programs have a variety of effects on decisions determining family composition, i.e., the decision to marry, to separate, to bear a child, or to form a separate household. Studies using data from the various Income Maintenance Experimental programs (Hannan et al., 1976, 1977a,b; Middleton and Haas, 1977; Knudson et al., 1977) as well as research studies using both cross-section and longitudinal data (Sawhill et al., 1975; Ross and Sawhill, 1975; Hoffman and Holmes, 1976) have

attempted to investigate these various effects. To date the results are, to say the least, less than definitive. The issues, and the results of research, are reviewed in Sawhill and MacDonald, 1977.

One conclusion that has emerged from the planning and execution of these experimental income maintenance programs is that not only can the basic approach to income maintenance affect family decision, but even apparently minor administrative details of such programs can have considerable effects on the way in which individuals are sorted into households and families (Institute for Research on Poverty, 1977; Klein, 1971; Sawhill and MacDonald, 1977).

One of the most interesting studies to date is that using data from the Seattle and Denver Income Maintenance Experiment (Hannan et al., 1976). In that study there are differences among the white, Black and Chicano populations in the response of family decisions to the experimental income maintenance program.

(3) Social Indicators of Family Structure and Process -- The most immediate impetus for this paper derives from work in "social indicators" pertaining to the family. By a social indicator, I mean, quite simply, a summary measure which indicates how the family circumstances of various groups compare, either across time or in different parts of the social structure. Several studies of social indicators of the family have appeared.

Ferriss (1970) has provided an excellent compilation of time series of family phenomena. His indicators are largely derived from published tabulations from the Current Population Reports of the U.S. Census Bureau,

and certain other official publications, for example, of the National Center for Health Statistics. Since he was concerned with measures of social change, his measures were limited to those indicators for which published data are available over a period of time. They are largely indicators for the total population and not for subgroups. The only subgroups for which much data are presented are age groups and whites and nonwhites.

Glick (1969) considers "family stability" as a social indicator with particular emphasis on identifying measures which indicate "desirable" vs. "undesirable" social change.

Farley and Hermalin (1971) focus on indicators of family stability in order to assess trends for the Black and white populations. They compare the marital status distribution, the proportion of families with female heads, the household and family status distribution and illegitimacy, and the family living arrangements of young children.

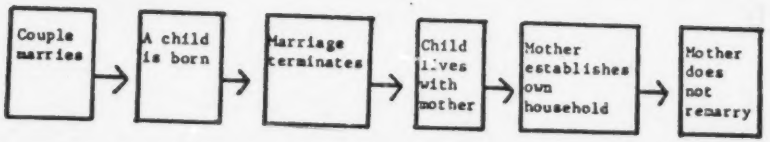
The rationale for their discussion of a variety of indicators of family stability is:

> These observations suggest that the marital status of adults, their living arrangements, and the type of households into which children are born and in which they are reared, all have a bearing on family stability. Thus, one might derive the following definition of stability: A stable family system is one in which adults marry and live with their spouses, in their own households and in which children are born into and raised in such a household.
>
> On several counts, however, such an overarching definition of family stability is not too useful. Data that would enable households in the United States to be classified as "stable" or "unstable" according to this composite definition are not available. Even if such a classification were available, it is possible that the trends of the separate components are not all alike and that some differ from the trend in the composite measure. This information would be lost by reliance on one composite measure. Lastly, insofar as stability has some affect on life chances, it is of theoretical and practical interest to determine which components of stability are most related to educational and occupational outcomes and to social and psychological variables deemed

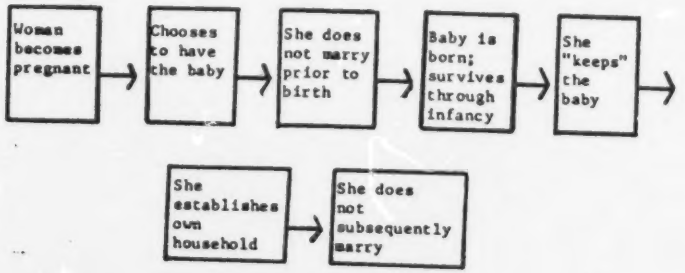
to influence these outcomes.
For these reasons we concluded that it would be useful to analyze separately the various dimensions of stability (Farley and Hermalin, 1971, p. 2).

Some of the commonly used social indicators are less than adequate, and some can be quite misleading. For example, we have now learned that measures of prevalence of separation and divorce within a population are a poor indicator of the incidence of marital disruption. (See Sweet, 1972, for a general discussion and Sweet and Bumpass, 1974) for a discussion of Black-White differences.) This is the case because prevalence measures confound differences in marital disruption, remarriage rates, age at marriage distributions, and age structure differences in a single measure.

Similarly, the prevalence of female family heads within a population or subgroup may be a deceptive indicator. The process by which two persons separate and create two households, one of which is a female-headed household, involves a whole chain of demographic events. An increase in the number of female-headed families may result from changes at any point in the process.



Female headed families also may be created when an unmarried woman has a child:


Woman becomes pregnant
Chooses to have the baby
She does not marry prior to birth
Baby is born; survives through infancy
She "keeps" the baby
She establishes own household
She does not subsequently marry

(See also Cutright, 1973, 1974; Ross and Sawhill, 1975). Yet neither of these processes, as we will later show, is the modal path to female family headship--instead it is widowhood. Thus female family heads are homogeneous neither with respect to the process by which they arrive in this status, nor with respect to the consequences of being in the status (e.g., not all female family heads have dependent children), nor with respect to policy implications.

(4) Another longstanding concern of demographers and sociologists is to assess the consequences of the incidence and timing of various family transitions. Duncan, Featherman, and Duncan (1972) address the question of family events as "career contingencies". There have been numerous

studies of effects of premarital pregnancy on marital disruption (see Sweet 1977, p. 384 for review of the literature). The effect of age at first marriage and age at first birth on the life chances of women and of young couples has also been studied by numerous investigators (see Sweet 1977, pp. 376-378).

A recent development of great significance for the study of the demography of family and household structure is the collection of longitudinal data on large samples of the population. We are now in a position to understand the processes by which groups differ in household structure, whereas in the past we could only compare the structures themselves. Similarly, we could, in the past, observe the differential prevalence of family types among different economic or social categories or vice versa. Now we are in a position to better understand the social and economic determinants and consequences of family transition (see Duncan and Morgan, 1976; Sweet, 1977a, p. 397).

In this paper we present a number of indicators of family and household structure for racial and ethnic minority groups in the United States. These indicators have been selected primarily on the basis of their utility with respect to assessing the impact of variation among racial and ethnic groups in family and household structure on measured economic welfare and inequality. However, they also bear on other issues discussed above. The discussion will note the range

of variability among ethnic groups and the strengths and weaknesses of these measures in saying something useful about family structure and process.*

DATA

Racial and Ethnic Groups

We have compiled data for fourteen racial and ethnic groups as defined by the U. S. Census Bureau in the 1970 Census. As a reference group we include:

1 - Whites, excluding Spanish surnamed whites (when using published materials, this group includes Spanish surnamed whites)

Five "racial" minorities are identified:

2 - Blacks

3 - Chinese

4 - Japanese

5 - Filipinos

6 - American Indians

*The original version of this paper included several other indicators, including

(1) Measures of prevalence of marriage, divorce or separation, and remarriage.

(2) The living arrangements of children.

(3) The living arrangements of the elderly.

Copies of these tables and a discussion of them are available on request from the author at the Center for Demography, Social Science Building, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin 53706.

Three "Spanish" origin or descent groups are identified by responses to a direct question concerning the individual's origin or descent:

7 - Mexican

8 - Puerto Rican

9 - Cuban

As an alternative way of identifying the Mexican origin population we use:

10 - Spanish surnamed persons living in the five Southwestern states. In general, the figures for Mexican origin or descent and Spanish surname are very similar. (For discussions of the identification of this population see Hernandez et al., 1973,) We use Spanish surnamed in addition to Mexican origin or descent because it is available for earlier Censuses and will permit measures of change. The "origin or descent" question has been asked only in 1970.

11 - Puerto Rico. We have included data on the population residing and enumerated in the 1970 Census of Puerto Rico.

In addition, we have to subdivided the Black population into three components:

(a) - Those living in the rural South

(b) - Those living in the urban South

(c) - Those living outside the South

The reason for this subdivision is that the previous literature suggests that differences might be observed with more "stable" families in the rural South and least "stable" outside the South. The rural-Southern Black population is a predominantly non-farm population. The rural farm Black population has virtually disappeared over the past several decades. When published materials are utilized, the Black population is not subdivided in this manner.

Not all of the groups in this study are disadvantaged minority groups. In fact, there is quite a wide range of variation in the

socioeconomic position of various groups. Median family income in 1969 varies from $12,515 for Japanese Americans to $9961 for whites, to $5832 for American Indians. In Puerto Rico it was only $3063

Japanese	$12,515
Chinese	10,610
Whites (total)	9,961
Filipino	9,318
Cuban	8,529
Mexican	6,962
Puerto Rican	6,165
Black	6,067
American Indian	5,832
Puerto Rico	3,063

How do we classify married couples or families by ethnic status? With the exception of the Spanish surname population* there are several possible alternatives. In our earlier work on fertility (Rindfuss and Sweet, 1977) we chose to identify a couple as a member of an ethnic group if either husband or wife was a member. Thus, a couple consisting of a Black husband and an Indian wife would fall in both the Black and Indian universe. This procedure could be extended to households or families by including a person or family as a member of a group if any member of the household was a member.

The alternative is to use the ethnic status of the individual for that individual and the ethnic status of the household head for the household. In this paper we have chosen this latter solution, largely

*Spanish surname wives who did not have a Spanish surname at marriage acquired one at marriage. Similarly their children are Spanish surnamed. In the Census it is impossible to determine the separate ethnic identity of a woman and her husband based on the surname classification. It is, however, possible using the question on "Spanish Origin or Descent."

because of computing convenience and to maximize comparability between the published Census reports (which follow this practice) and our estimates made from the Public Use Samples.

Public Use Files

All data for this study derive from the 1970 Census of Population conducted in the United States and in Puerto Rico. We have used some information from the published Census volumes, but have relied primarily on the Public Use Sample tapes. Relatively little published information on family structure and composition is available for most of these ethnic minorities with the exception of Blacks. In order to supplement these published data, we have done a great deal of tabulation from the six separate one percent samples in the 1970 Census.

Sample Proportions

For the white population a 1/1000 sample has been used throughout. Because we use marriage data in some tables, the 5% state sample tape was used. For the two largest minority groups, Spanish surname and Blacks, the full 1/100 sample from the 5% state file was used throughout. "Race" is available on all samples so it was possible to use a 6/100 sample for the numerically smaller Indian, Chinese, Japanese, and Filipino populations. However, when first marriage date and number of times married were required, only a 3/100 sample was possible. For Mexican Americans, Puerto Ricans in the United States, and Cubans, a 3/100 sample was used since "origin or descent" is available only in the 5% sample. The data for Puerto Rico are available for a 1/100 sample.

By 1977 the results of the 1970 Census are somewhat outdated. In other work we have used data from the March and June Current Population Surveys to extend this work. Unfortunately, the CPS data may provide enough cases for Whites, Blacks, and Spanish surnamed persons, but not for the other groups considered here. In many instances even the sample size for Blacks and the Spanish surnamed populations is not adequate.

FAMILY AND HOUSEHOLD INDICATORS

In the remainder of this paper, we consider indicators of the following aspects of family and household structure.

(1) Age Distribution

(2) Family and Household Size

(3) Persons not Living in Families

(4) Distribution of Households by Life Cycle Stage

(5) Characteristics of Husband-Wife Families

(6) Female Headed Families and Children Living in Two Parent Households

(7) Families with Non-nuclear Family Members

(8) Living Arrangements of Certain Categories of Adults, including
- (A) Young unmarried persons
- (B) Recently married couples
- (C) Separated and divorced persons without children
- (D) Separated and divorced mothers

1. Age Distribution

The age distribution of a population may have a considerable effect on its aggregate household and family composition. We present for later reference in Table 1 a summary of the age distribution of each of our populations.

(a) High fertility populations such as American Indians, Southern Rural Blacks, and persons of Spanish surname or Mexican origin have high proportions under 18.

(b) Some groups, such as Mexican Americans and Puerto Ricans (in the U. S.) have very low proportions of elderly persons, reflecting age patterns of immigration, the recency of immigration, and high fertility.

(c) The low fraction of Southern Rural Blacks at ages 18-44 probably results from out-migration.

2. Household and Family Size

In the Census, most individuals are enumerated in households. The only individuals not in households are those living in group quarters, either as inmates of institutions or in other types of group quarters such as college dormitories or rooming houses. The typical household consists of a family, i.e., a number of related individuals sharing a common living unit. Not all households, however, involve families. A single individual living by him- or herself in an apartment or other housing unit would be regarded as a household, as would two or more unrleated individuals sharing a common living unit. Household size can vary from one group to another depending on such things as levels of fertility (determining the number of children in the average household); the age pattern of marriage; the age distribution of the population; levels of divorce and remarriage; and typical living patterns of the widowed elderly as well as other unmarried individuals. We will return to some of these issues in subsequent sections.

Average household size for whites in 1970 was slightly over three persons. Black household size was about three and one-half persons per household, and Spanish surname households had an average size of more than four persons. Other groups with household size exceeding four persons are Puerto Rico and Southern rural Blacks. Indian and Puerto Rican households are only slightly below four persons per household.

The overall average household size is a result of the average size of households of specific types and the distribution of households among the types. For our purposes we have identified three types of households:

(a) Husband-wife families -- in which a married, spouse present, person is the head.

(b) Other family households -- in which at least one other relative of the head is present. A large component of these households are female-headed families.

(c) Non-family households -- in which no relative of the head is present. A large share of such households are one-person households.

Husband-wife households are larger than the other household types. For whites there are 3.56 persons in such households. This compares with 3.02 in other family households. Most racial and ethnic minorities have considerably larger family sizes. Apart from whites, Cuban (3.92) and Japanese (3.79) families are the smallest husband-wife families. The largest husband-wife family size is found for

Mexican Americans (4.81), Southern Rural Blacks (4.97), Puerto Rico (4.79), and Indian (4.55).

Black husband-wife families are intermediate in size (4.28), and even smaller outside the South (4.07). However, Black families other than husband-wife families are quite large (4.05). Only Indian "other" families are larger (4.08). Southern Rural Black "other" families are especially large (4.65).

It is interesting that although husband-wife families are larger for every group than other family households, the difference in average size is not great. For whites the difference is about half a person, while for Blacks it is less than one-quarter of a person. For no group is the average size as large as one person per household.

There is relatively little variation in the size of non-family households, with the one-person household the norm in every group. The lowest average size is 1.10 persons in Puerto Rico, while the largest size is found among Filipinos (1.36). Excluding Filipinos, the largest size is 1.21 found among Chinese.

3. Population Not Living in Families

Table 3 presents the proportion of each group living in non-family situations. This includes:

(a) Persons living in family households, but who themselves, are not relatives of the household head. This would include lodgers, resident employees, and non-related friends of the family.

(b) Persons living in non-family households. The majority of

these are persons living alone in a one-person household. It also includes persons living with non-related "roommates," sharing an apartment, or other dwelling units.

(c) Persons living as "inmates" in group quarters. The inmate population includes persons in prisons, mental hospitals, and other hospitals which typically involve long duration of residence, and old people's homes.

(d) Persons living in other group quarters. The major components are:

(i) college students in dormitories

(ii) military members living in barracks

(iii) persons living in rooming houses with 5 or more residents not related to the household head.

Overall about 11 percent of all White and Black individuals live outside of families. This proportion is closer to 5 percent for Spanish surnamed persons, Puerto Ricans (living in both the mainland and in Puerto Rico), Cubans, and Southern Rural Blacks, while for Filipinos and Chinese the proportion is higher (16 and 13 percent, respectively).

It is difficult to interpret the social meaning of a high or low proportion of a population living outside of family households. The largest component of this group is persons living alone in one-person households. Is this a "desirable" status or not? Single-person households have increased in numbers over recent decades in response to increasing affluence, growing employment, and rising earnings of women, and perhaps an increased "taste" for privacy (Beresford and Rivlin, 1966). Indeed, living outside of a household may increasingly be a regular concomitant of the routine life cycle transition of

individuals as they obtain their education, serve in the military, and establish themselves in careers prior to marriage and as they spend time between marriage in one-member households.

Demographically, the proportion of the population living outside of family households depends on the:

1. Age structure--(Large numbers of elderly persons and large numbers of young adults would result in larger numbers of individuals in non-family households).

2. Level or mortality resulting in widowhood--(Widowhood also depends on the age difference between spouses, as well as the level of mortality).

3. Patterns of separation and divorce.

4. Patterns of remarriage following separation or widowhood.

5. The choice of living arrangements of persons in a non-married status.

In later sections we will examine the living arrangements of one of the groups with the highest incidence of non-family living arrangements: young, single adults. Living arrangements of the elderly are discussed in Sweet, 1977[b].

A. Living in Households, Not related to Head

Among whites only one-half of one percent of the population are unrelated household members. This status is more common in each of the other groups considered here. Among the more disadvantaged groups such as Indians (2.1 percent), Filipinos (1.8 percent), and Blacks (1.2 percent overall; 1.4 percent in the non-South), the proportions are higher. For Mexican Americans (or Spanish surname) and Puerto Ricans, however, the proportion is about the same as for whites.

B. The proportion of the total population in one-person households is very low among Mexican Americans (2.3 percent), persons in Puerto Rico (2.4 percent), and Puerto Ricans and Cubans (2.8 percent each). It is also quite low among Blacks in the rural South. The proportion for whites (5.6 percent) and Blacks (5.3 percent overall; 5.7 percent outside the South) are the highest.

An additional 1.5 percent of the white population lives in two or more person, non-family households. This proportion varies from 0.5 percent for persons living in Puerto Rico to 3.8 percent for Filipinos.

C. Group Quarters.--Nearly 3 percent of the white population lives in group quarters, but only slightly more than 1 percent are inmates of institutions. Indians and Blacks have larger proportions as inmates in institutions (2.0 percent and 1.5 percent respectively). Chinese, Japanese, Filipinos, and persons living in Puerto Rico have very small proportions of inmates. The proportion of Mexican Americans who are inmates is also very low.

The proportion in other group quarters is also quite variable, ranging from 0.7 percent for Cubans to 5.3 percent for Filipinos. As we shall see later, there are wide differences in the specific types of group quarters for different ethnic groups.

4. Distribution of Households by Life-Cycle Stages

An important aspect of the social structure is the distribution of a population by life-cycle stages. The life-cycle stage distribution of a population is dependent on, but distinct from, its age distribution since it is affected by the whole series of family processes including the distribution of age at marriage, the amount and spacing of

childbearing, patterns of divorce and family dissolution, and the living arrangements of various groups within this population.

There are a variety of ways of classifying families by life-cycle stages, and we are not prepared to enter into a discussion of which way is the "best." We have chosen the classification presented in Table 5. The aim of this classification is to identify groups of households which have some qualitative difference from one another, and are internally homogeneous with respect to family circumstances. There is also a concern for an ordering -- i.e., the ordered sequence of "stages" that a typical individual or family might proceed through as they age. However, for our purposes, we would emphasize the homogeneity within stages and the differentiation among them, more than any inherent ordering or typical progression of individuals through the stages.

(1) We begin by identifying households headed by single, never married persons under age 30. These are typically one-person households, and are usually transitional arrangements of persons who will leave the status by marriage within a short period of time.

(2)-(3) Households headed by single persons aged 30-44 and 45-59 are also typically one-person households, but more commonly involve persons who will not subsequently marry -- i.e., they may be more "permanent" living units.

(4),(5),(6) We separate households headed by persons age 60 and over (except the few with own children under 18). Typically these are households in which the head is retired or nearing retirement. These households are divided by marital status -- married couple, formerly

married (typically a widowed female), and never married (a very small group).

Non-aged married couple households are divided into six categories -- three with own children under age 18 and three without. Those with children are divided by age of youngest children:

(7) Youngest child under six -- these are families with the responsibility for at least one pre-school age child.

(8) Youngest child 6 to 11 -- these are households with at least one child of grade school age, but no younger child. A considerable childcare responsibility persists, but it is not typically of the same intensity as for younger children.

(9) Youngest child 12-17 -- these households have high school age children present, but none younger.

The consumption needs and patterns of these three groups may also vary, although a classification involving numbers of children and the age of the oldest child might tap that dimension more adequately than the present classification.

Married couples with no children are divided by age of the wife.

(10) Childless couples with wife under 30 are typically in a temporary circumstance prior to the birth of their first child.

(11) Those with wife 30-44 are more likely to be permanently childless couples, although it may include some couples who will go on to have children and others whose children have already left home.

(12) Those with wife 45-59 are more often persons whose children are 18 and over, and who have already left home. This is the stage frequently referred to as the "empty nest stage," although it includes some whose "nest" includes some children age 18 and over.

(13)-(18) The remaining stages are households headed by formerly married persons, divided according to the presence and ages of children, and by age of the head following the same patterns as for married couples. Never married persons with own children in the household are also included here.

There is great variability among racial and ethnic groups in the composition of households by family life-cycle stage. Some of the more striking contrasts are: The proportion of all households with children of the head under six years of age:

White	20.1%
Black	23.8%
Spanish Surname	36.2%
Puerto Rican	28.7%

The proportion of all households with any own children of head under 18 years of age are:

White	43.3%
Black	47.4%
Spanish Surname	63.1%
Puerto Rican	65.5%

The proportion of all households headed by persons over age 59 are:

White	27.4%
Black	21.9%
Spanish Surname	15.0%
Puerto Rican	8.2%

The proportion of all households headed by non-aged married couples:

White	56.7%
Black	44.0%
Spanish Surname	65.5%
Puerto Rican	58.9%

The proportion of households headed by non-aged formerly married individual, is

White	10.5%
Black	28.5%
Spanish Surname	15.3%
Puerto Rican	27.0%

5. Some Characteristics of Husband-Wife Families

What proportion of all husband-wife families have children under 18 present in the household? A husband-wife family is defined as a family in which the husband and wife are present in the household, and in which the husband is enumerated as the head of the household. The proportion of such families with children present depends on both the age structure of the population and the level and timing of fertility, as well as the ages at which children leave the parental household.

Among whites, 56 percent of the husband-wife families have children under 18, and 27 percent have children under six. These proportions vary quite widely. High fertility groups such as Mexican Americans have very high proportions with young children, as do groups with lower fertility, but a younger age structure (such as Puerto Ricans in the U. S. and Filipinos).

An indicator of the prevalence of large families is the proportion of husband-wife families with four or more children.* For the white population, this proportion is 9 percent. For Indians and Mexican Americans, this proportion is in excess of 20 percent, while for Cubans and Japanese it is below 6 percent. The proportion of both Black and Puerto Rican husband-wife families with four or more children is 18 percent.

Another indicator, the proportion of husband-wife families with five or more members, is also shown in Table 4. This fraction ranges from 7 percent for Cubans to 31 percent for Mexican Americans and American Indians. For whites the proportion is 16 percent and for Blacks, 29 percent.

*This is not the same as the proportion of couples who have borne or will bear four or more children. It includes families which are as yet incomplete, as well as families which have already had children leave home. The base includes all couples whether or not any children are present.

6. Female Headed Families and Children in Two-Parent Households

Nine percent of all white families are headed by females. Twenty-seven percent of Black families are female-headed. Indian families (18 percent) and Puerto Rican families in the U. S. (24 percent) also have high proportions of female-headed families. The proportions of Spanish surname (and Mexican) families headed by women are higher than those of whites, although only slightly higher (13 percent). Relatively low proportions of the Chinese (7 percent), Filipino (9 percent), and Japanese (10 percent) are female-headed. In Puerto Rico 16 percent of all families are female-headed.

The proportion of children in two-parent households is an indicator of the prevalence of marital disruption (and remarriage) looked at from the perspective of children rather than the perspective of adults or marriages. One important fact about this measure is that the count of children living in two-parent households includes children living with "step-parents" as well as with both "natural" parents. It also includes a smaller group of children living with adoptive parents. It is not possible to reliably estimate the proportion of children living with step-parents or adoptive parents from Census data. (See, however, Sweet 1974.)

The lowest prevalence of children under 18 in two-parent households is found among Blacks (57.3 percent). Other groups with low proportions are Puerto Ricans (66.5 percent), Indians (68.6 percent), and Puerto Rico (74.6% percent). Chinese and Japanese children have higher proportions living in two-parent families (90.1 percent and 89.3 percent, respectively) than whites (86.8 percent).

The proportion of female-headed families with own children under 18 is a different sort of measure which complements our earlier measure of the proportion of families headed by women and the proportion of children living with their mother, but not in a two-parent family.

Among whites 17 percent of the female-headed families have children under six, and a total of 31 percent have children under 18. For most other groups, the proportions are higher. Puerto Ricans (in the U. S.) have the highest proportions (44 and 51 percent, respectively). This is because of this youthful age structure. The proportions for Puerto Rico are more nearly like those of the white population in the states (18 and 50 percent).

Blacks, Spanish surnamed (and Mexican), and American Indians all have approximately 30 percent of female-headed families with children under 6 and two-thirds with children under 18.

The proportion of all families with a female head observed in a cross-section at a point in time is the resultant of a complex set of processes and circumstances. One way to get a clearer perspective on these processes is to examine the marital status distribution of female heads.

We have reviewed the proportions of families headed by females in a previous section. Data in Table 7 show that we should not equate female family heads with persons in separated and divorced marital statuses. Among whites, only 39 percent of the female family heads are separated or divorced. Widows are the modal group. The marital

status distribution varies quite widely. Nearly half of the Black and Spanish surname (or Mexican) female family heads are separated or divorced, while less than one-quarter of the Chinese female family heads are. Among Filipinos, Japanese, Chinese, and Cubans, a relatively large share of female family heads are married, spouse absent-other women. Widowhood accounts for more than half of the Chinese but less than one-fifth of the Filipino female family heads.

Of particular interest are differences among the three Black groups. Widowhood accounts for almost half of the female family heads in the rural South, but less than one-quarter of those living outside the South. Conversely, 34 percent of the non-Southern female family heads are separated or divorced, but only 31 percent in the rural South. The urban South is intermediate between the two other groups.

7. Non-nuclear Family Members

Next we turn our attention to the presence of adults in households of various types.

Table 8 presents the average number of adults per household for each of three types of households. By adults we mean persons aged 18 and over. Among whites, husband-wife families include an average of 2.26 adults. This is smaller than any other group shown. The largest number of adults per husband-wife family are found for Chinese (2.55) and Cubans (2.54). Blacks have an average of 2.39 adults per husband-wife family.

Other white families have an average of 1.85 adults, only 0.4 adults fewer than husband-wife families. For most other groups the number of adults per "other" family is higher than that for whites.

The exceptions are Blacks with a slightly lower family size (1.80) and Puerto Ricans with only 1.54 adults per family. Particularly notable is that non-South Black "other families" have a very small average size (1.67 adults). This reflects the high prevalence of female headed families consisting of a separated or divorced mother and her children in the non-Southern Black population. The low number of adults per "other" family for Puerto Rico undoubtedly reflects, in part at least, the fact that kin are spatially separated, and many Puerto Ricans would have to return to Puerto Rico in order to join a larger family unit. The same may also contribute to the relatively small size of the non-Southern Black families. The kin unit which they would join may be located in the South.

Table 9 focuses on the presence of "extraneous" adults (i.e., adults other than husband and wife) within "Husband-Wife Families." Two categories of "relatives" are distinguished — adult children of the couple and other relatives. Overall a fifth of the white husband-wife families have another adult present. For Blacks and Spanish surname families and families of most of the other groups, this proportion is about 30 percent.

In the most common situation the adult is a child of the couple. Among white husband-wife families, only 7 percent have a related adult other than own children of the household heads. This is the lowest proportion of any group. The proportion is about two and one-half times as high for Blacks (18 percent), and among Southern rural Blacks it is about one-quarter. High proportions are found for Filipinos (19 percent) and Cubans (23 percent). Mexican Americans, Chinese, Japanese, Indians, and Puerto Ricans all have proportions between 12 and 15 percent.

These tables on presence of "extra" adults in families, particularly in husband-wife families, point to a particularly important issue with respect to the measurement of income inequality and economic welfare. Families with several adults may differ from families with two adults in several ways:

(1) They may have more earners.

(2) They do have more consumers, at least more adult consumers.

(3) They may have more persons who are disabled or infirm.

(4) Whatever the number of earners or persons unable to earn, they may represent an important type of demographic adaptation to economic need. That is, they may be in an extended household precisely because, as separate households, they would be unable to be economically viable, but by pooling resources, and taking advantages of economies of scale, they may be more able to adapt to low earnings and/or disability or other financial hardship.

In regard to differences in the prevalence of adult children in the household we have not recorded the extent to which the children are enrolled in school. To the extent that they are, the meaning of the differential prevalence may vary. For example, it is probable that a larger fraction of white than Black children age 18-24 are enrolled in school. However, of those enrolled, it is likely that a larger fraction of Black students live at home. This is true for two reasons:

(A) Black families are less able to finance children attending school and living away from home, and

(B) Black families tend to be concentrated in large urban areas, within convenient commuting distance of a variety of educational institutions.

8. Living Arrangements of Adults

The remainder of this paper is devoted to a discussion of living arrangements of persons in specific life cycle stages.

A. Young Adults -- One life-cycle stage about which little has been written (see, however, Young) is the stage of young, unmarried adult. For our purposes, one interesting family indicator is the living arrangements of 18-24 year old, never married men and women.* The modal living arrangement for such persons is that of living in the parental household. What proportion of such persons are living in their parental household? This proportion will depend on a large number of factors including the prevalence of college attendance, the degree to which persons attending college are doing so within the local community, the extent of military service, the pattern of marriage ages which determines the age distribution of the never married population age 18-24, the employment and economic opportunities of young persons of a specific racial and ethnic group, and a variety of other factors.

For most groups, females are more likely to be living in the parental household than males. It is tempting to suggest that this means that families are more apt to be protective of their female

*We are aware of, but have chosen to ignore, the fact that persons in this age group — particularly disadvantaged, minority males are underenumerated in the Census. The reason for ignoring it is that there is nothing we can do to "adjust" the data. The reason for mentioning it in a footnote is that it involves a potential bias. Persons omitted in the Census enumeration would be disproportionately those living outside of the parental household. Another problem with this age group is that there are many men who are omitted by virtue of being overseas in the armed forces.

children than their male children. However, it appears that the sex difference is due largely to a much higher incidence of men living in group quarters, particularly in armed forces group quarters. Women, however, tend to marry earlier than men for all groups considered here and consequently the women in the sample of never married persons age 18-24 would tend to be younger than the men. Furthermore, the differences among groups of the prevalence of proportion of young unmarried adults living in the parental household would depend on the access to housing outside of the parental household which would depend on the residential pattern of the group in question and the nature of the available housing stock.

We will look primarily at the pattern for females. A very high proportion of Mexican Americans (79 percent) and Cubans (78 percent) and persons living in Puerto Rico (82 percent) are living in the parental household. The proportion is extremely low for American Indians (54 percent). It is very similar for whites and Blacks (63 and 65 percent). There are large differences among the three groups of Blacks, with four fifths of the men and women living in the parental household in the rural South. These differences can probably be explained primarily in terms of migration patterns and of the available housing stock in the rural South.

Residence in group quarters is more common among young adults than among any other group. Table 11 shows the proportion of never married persons 18-24 years of age who are living in group quarters. The proportion is generally higher among men than among women, and varies widely from

group to group. One-quarter of the white and 21 percent of Black single men live in group quarters. Very high fractions of Filipino, Indian, and Chinese men are found in group quarters, while only a small fraction of Spanish surname (or Mexican) men are living in such locations. Similar ethnic differences are found for women except that Black women have a proportion much lower than white (8 percent vs. 19 percent), and Filipino women do not have an extremely high proportion in group quarters.

The remaining columns in Table 11 show percentage of the total age group (not limited to never married) in specific types of group quarters. For men we show armed forces barracks, prisons and jails, and college dormitories. For women only college dormitories are shown.

Before describing group differences, we should point out that not all military personnel are enumerated in group quarters. Many military men live "off-base" in apartments, while those men stationed overseas are not included. Nonetheless, these figures should indicate roughly the relative prevalence of membership in the armed forces.

Similarly, not all college students live in dormitories. Indeed, in 1970 only 27 percent of the white male and 33 percent of the white female, non-married college students* aged 18-24 were enumerated in dormitories. The probability of an enrolled person living in a dormitory undoubtedly depends on several factors, including:

(1) Residence patterns — groups living in large urban areas

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*persons enrolled in college, excluding graduate school (i.e., those with less than 16 years of school completed)

are accessible to a diverse range of educational opportunities without leaving home. More dispersed and more rural groups are not.

(2) Affluence — groups which can afford it may be more likely to leave home to attend school than the less affluent.

(3) Emancipation from parental control -- students not living in dormitories are not necessarily living at home. In groups exercising greater parental control, dormitory life may be preferred to apartments and other living arrangements.

In any event, our data are not intended to show prevalence of enrollment in higher education.

Among males, about 7-8 percent of white, Blacks, and Puerto Ricans are in military barracks. A lower fraction is found for Spanish surname (4 percent), although 6 percent of Mexican men are in barracks, Chinese (3 percent), Japanese (4 percent), and Cuban men (2 percent). Ten percent of American Indian men and 22 percent of Filipino men are in military barracks. Evidently, a very large fraction of young Filipinos are in the armed forces.

As expected, the proportion of young Black men and Indian men in prisons and jails is very high (4 percent) in contrast to whites (0.6 percent). Spanish surname (Mexican) men have 1.2 percent in prisons and jails. The rates for Filipinos and Puerto Ricans are 1.7 and 2.0 percent, respectively.

Eight percent of white men are in college dorms. Less than 4 percent of Blacks and 2 percent of Spanish surname (Mexican) men are in college dorms. Very low proportions are also found for Puerto Ricans (less than 1 percent) and Filipinos. Over 20 percent of Chinese

males and nearly 10 percent of Japanese males are in dormitories. The high proportion of Chinese in college dormitories also reflects in part the fact that Chinese foreign students are included in the universe. In the panel at the bottom of the table, foreign students are excluded from the base.

For females, the ethnic differentials in the proportion in dormitories are quite similar to those for men. We would emphasize that these data are not appropriate for an examination of differential rates of enrollment among groups, or between the sexes within a group.

Among Blacks, there are only small differences between proportions in various group quarters in the South and non-South. It was not possible to break the South into rural and urban components here because almost all institutions and other group quarters are in urban places.

B. Recently Married Couples -- In Table 12 we show the proportion of married couples, married less than five years who are living in their own household. The alternative to living in their own household is to live in the household of a relative or in a household with someone else as the head. Most of these young people would be living in their parental household if they are not living in their own household. Ninety-six percent of the white couples are living in their own household. This compares with 90 and 91 percent of the Black and Spanish surname populations respectively. Chinese and Japanese Americans have relatively high proportions with their own household (93 and 94 percent) respectively. A very high proportion is also found for

Puerto Ricans in the United States. This could be explained in several ways but certainly contributing to this high proportion is the fact that many of these Puerto Rican couples have parents who live in Puerto Rico rather than in the United States. The same would be true of Cubans who also have a relatively high proportion in their own household. Lower than average proportions in the households are found for Filipinos (86 percent) and American Indians (88 percent). Among the three groups of Blacks, a very low proportion is found for Southern rural Blacks (80 percent), whereas for Southern, urban and non-Southern Blacks the proportions are 92 and 91 percent, respectively.

C. Separated and Divorced Persons with No Children -- Another aspect of family and household structure is the living arrangements of persons who experience separation or divorce. To what extent do such persons form their own households, and to what extent do they move in their parental household or live in other housing arrangements? We have selected for consideration the living arrangements of 25 to 44 year old, separated and divorced persons. In Table 13 we show the living arrangements of those persons with no children present. We will not review the entire pattern but will note some of the most significant differences. The proportion moving into the parental household is very high in Puerto Rico as well as among Spanish surname persons. With these exceptions, between one-sixth and one-quarter of males live in the parental household. For most groups the modal pattern is to form a non-family household -- in most cases a one-person household. Forty-nine percent of the whites,

38 percent of the Blacks and a relatively large fraction of all other groups with the exception of American Indians, Filipinos, and Puerto Ricans are in non-family households. Among females the same pattern tends to hold.

D. Separated and Divorced Women with Children — Table 14 shows the living arrangements of 25 to 44 year old separated and divorced women with own children under eighteen. For all groups, the modal pattern is to form one's own household. This is less true in Puerto Rico than it is in the United States and it is even less typical in Puerto Rico than it is for Puerto Ricans living in the United States. The explanation for this undoubtedly lies in the fact that the parents of many Puerto Ricans in the United States are living in Puerto Rico. Hence if they live with parents they must return to Puerto Rico. For all other groups, the range in the proportion who are family heads is from about 86 percent to about 90 percent. Nearly all of those persons who are not living as family heads are living in their parental household for all groups shown.*

CONCLUSIONS

When I began working on this paper I had intended that it be a discussion of the implications of racial and ethnic differences in family composition on measured income inequality. As I worked on

*It is important to appreciate that these figures refer to a cross-section of the separated and divorced population. A higher proportion would be found in the parental household for a short period following separation while they are in the process of rearranging their lives.

it, I gradually retreated from this goal toward the more modest one of documented differences in family structure, differences which might have some implications for measured inequality and economic wellbeing.

It is clear from the analysis reported in this paper that there is great diversity in the family and household structure among the racial and ethnic groups considered. The diversity is not simply a difference between those minority groups which tend to be disadvantaged (Blacks, Chicanos, and Indians) on the one hand, and those that tend to be more affluent (whites, Chinese Americans, Japanese Americans) on the other. Further, although there are large black-white differences in family and household structure, these are not the only differences to be found. Frequently, Blacks are found to be very similar to whites on one measure and quite different from Chicanos. On some other measure of family structure, Blacks tend to be similar to the Chicano population and quite different from the white population. We have also noted diversity within the Black population. A number of our measures show considerable difference among the Southern urban, Southern rural, and non-Southern Black populations. Also noteworthy are differences in family structure and living arrangements between the mainland Puerto Rican population and the population of Puerto Rico itself. Many of these differences as well as differences among the three Black populations may be attributable in large part to the pattern of migration, and particularly the possibility of return migration in response to, or in conjunction with a change in marital family status.

Another conclusion emerges quite clearly from our examination of family and household structure. The processes determining the

aggregate distribution of population by family and household structure are extremely complex.

We have suggested no way of making appropriately standardized comparisons of economic wellbeing and inequality using data such as that collected in the decennial census. We do, however, have a clearer sense of what the problem is. Not only do different populations differ in their age structure and the size of the family units, but there are also important differences in the probability of various alternative living arrangements among any given age-by-marital status group — e.g., young, separated and divorced adults, and young, never married adults. There are also differences among the ethnic groups in both the number of children present per household and also the number of adults present per household, and per husband-wife family. Differences in the number of adults present is relevant both in terms of the consumption needs of the household and also in terms of the earning potential of the household. The analysis, however, is complicated even further by the fact that the formation of an extended household unit may be a response to the economic difficulties experienced by the component adult members of that household in the absence of such a sharing arrangement. A significant fraction of these households with "extraneous" adult members probably involves households in which there is an aged or disabled person who may require more or less continuous supervision and care.

The analysis reported here has no time dimension to . We have not reported on degree to which these racial and ethnic differences in family composition and household structure observed in 1970 have been changing through time. Are these differences becoming more or less pronounced or does our observation in 1970 reflect simply the continuation of the long term pattern?

The analysis reported here has only scratched the surface of the possibility of analyzing these data to better understand family and household patterns within and among the racial and ethnic groups considered here. Detailed analyses of socioeconomic differentials within ethnic groups would be possible and would certainly add to our understanding of these family patterns.

Neither have we considered with any care the demographic processes underlying these differences in household and family structure. We have not investigated age at first marriage patterns among the racial and ethnic groups nor have we looked at patterns of marital disruption or remarriage. This is an important missing link in our analysis.

We have also (for lack of space) ignored the household situation of the elderly population, a group which represents a surprisingly large fraction of the total population of household heads. They represent a larger fraction of household heads than of the population because the elderly tend to live in very small household units, most frequently units with one widowed person or two married, spouse present persons.

Finally, from the perspective of monitoring and assessing social change, we would conclude that all of the diversity and all of the

complexity underlying the sorting of individuals into families and households necessitates a whole array of social indicators rather than just a few. Average household size, the prevalence of female headed households, and the average number of children per husband-wife family are important indicators, but in no sense do they tell the whole story.

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TABLE 1. Age Distributions

	< 18	18-44	45-64	65+	TOTAL
White	33.1	35.0	21.3	10.6	100.0
Black	42.8	33.7	16.4	7.1	100.0
Spanish Surname	46.3	35.8	13.4	4.6	100.0
Chinese	32.5	43.8	17.4	6.4	100.0
Japanese	29.3	42.7	20.1	7.9	100.0
Filipino	35.7	42.7	15.0	6.6	100.0
American Indian	45.4	35.2	13.4	6.0	100.0
Mexican	47.4	36.2	12.2	4.2	100.0
Puerto Rican	47.2	40.2	10.1	2.5	100.0
Cuban	32.4	39.2	21.6	6.7	100.0
Puerto Rico	43.6	34.7	14.9	6.8	100.0
Southern Rural Black	47.6	28.2	15.8	8.4	100.0
Southern Urban Black	41.9	33.4	16.9	7.8	100.0
Non-Southern Black	42.0	35.7	16.2	6.1	100.0

SOURCE: Public Use Samples

*In this and all tables derived from Public Use Samples, the white population excludes the white, Spanish surname population. In tables derived from published census sources, the white population includes the white, Spanish surname population.

Table 2. Mean Household Size

	Husband-Wife Families	Other Family Households	Non-Family Households	TOTAL
White	3.56	3.02	1.14	3.04
Black	4.28	4.05	1.18	3.54
Spanish Surname	4.69	3.88	1.19	4.16
Japanese	3.79	3.13	1.19	3.18
Chinese	4.13	3.23	1.32	3.44
Filipino	4.37	3.68	1.39	3.66
American Indian	4.55	4.08	1.16	3.86
Mexican	4.81	3.96	1.20	4.24
Puerto Rican	4.30	3.83	1.16	3.79
Cuban	3.92	3.03	1.20	3.48
Puerto Rico	4.79	4.03	1.10	4.23
Southern Rural Black	4.97	4.65	1.14	4.30
Southern Urban Black	4.24	4.07	1.18	3.52
Non-Southern Black	4.07	3.88	1.19	3.33

SOURCE: Public Use Samples.

TABLE 3. Proportion of Total Population Living Outside of Families

	Living in Household--Non-rel.	Non-Family Households: 1 Member	2 Members	3 or more Members	Group Quarters: Inmate	Non-Inmate	Total Outside Families
White	0.5	5.6	1.0	0.5	1.1	1.8	10.5
Black	1.2	5.3	1.2	0.7	1.5	1.4	11.3
Spanish Surname	0.6	2.4	0.6	0.4	0.7	0.8	5.5
Chinese	1.1	4.8	1.6	2.0	0.5	3.2	13.2
Japanese	0.8	5.1	1.3	1.0	0.5	1.8	10.5
Filipino	1.8	4.3	1.8	2.0	0.5	5.3	15.7
American Indian	2.1	3.8	0.9	0.5	2.0	1.9	11.2
Mexican	0.7	2.3	0.6	0.4	0.7	1.0	5.7
Puerto Rican	0.8	2.8	0.6	0.4	1.0	1.1	6.7
Cuban	0.9	2.8	0.8	0.4	0.4	0.7	6.0
Puerto Rico	1.0	2.4	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.8	5.1
Southern Rural Black	0.9	3.4	0.7	0.3	—	—	5.3
Southern Urban Black	1.2	5.4	1.2	0.8	2.0	1.9	12.5
Non-Southern Black	1.4	5.7	1.3	0.8	1.7	1.4	12.3

SOURCE: Public Use Samples.

TABLE 4. Life-Cycle Stages — Households

	White	Black	Spanish Surname	Chinese	Japanese	Filipino	Indian
Single*,**	5.2	5.5	4.2	12.9	11.9	9.9	5.6
14-29	2.4	2.2	1.9	6.9	5.2	4.7	2.8
30-44	1.3	1.8	1.3	4.0	3.9	3.1	1.6
45-59	1.5	1.5	1.0	2.0	2.8	2.1	1.2
Married Couples**	56.7	44.0	65.5	61.2	58.1	57.6	54.6
No Kids,*** Wife <30	4.0	2.4	3.2	3.5	3.0	3.2	3.5
AYOC = 0-5	18.7	16.6	32.0	22.8	18.5	28.1	25.2
6-11	11.4	9.1	14.0	13.2	12.7	11.8	10.5
12-17	8.7	5.6	7.6	9.6	10.2	5.6	6.4
No Kids, Wife 30-44	2.5	2.9	2.2	4.6	3.7	3.7	2.9
No Kids, Wife 45-59	11.4	7.4	6.5	7.5	10.0	5.2	6.1
Formerly Married*,**	18.5	28.5	15.3	9.6	12.3	11.9	20.3
<30, No Kids	0.7	1.1	0.7	0.5	0.7	1.1	1.0
30-44, No Kids	1.2	3.4	1.6	1.9	2.5	2.0	2.3
45-59, No Kids	4.1	7.9	3.5	3.5	3.8	2.8	5.2
AYOC = 0-5	1.4	7.2	4.1	1.1	1.5	3.0	5.6
6-11	1.5	5.2	3.2	1.2	2.2	1.8	3.7
12-17	1.6	3.7	2.2	1.4	1.6	1.2	2.5
Elderly -- Age 60+	27.4	21.9	15.0	16.1	17.8	20.6	19.6
MSP	13.9	8.4	7.4	8.2	9.8	10.0	8.4
Formerly Married	11.5	12.2	6.6	6.3	6.8	5.9	9.9
Single	2.0	1.3	1.0	1.6	1.2	4.7	1.3
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

(Continued on next page)

TABLE 4. Life-Cycle Stages -- Households

	Mexican	Puerto Rican	Cuban	Blacks: Southern Rural	Blacks: Southern Urban	Blacks: Non-Southern	Puerto Rico
Single*,**	4.9	5.8	6.2	2.7	4.9	6.9	4.1
14-29	2.4	3.0	1.7	0.6	2.1	3.0	1.0
30-44	1.5	1.8	2.8	1.0	1.4	2.2	1.3
45-59	1.0	1.0	1.7	1.1	1.4	1.7	1.8
Married Couples**	65.1	58.9	66.2	48.4	42.6	43.7	59.1
No Kids,*** Wife <30	3.4	4.2	2.9	1.6	2.4	2.5	2.7
AYOC = 0-5	32.9	28.0	22.0	19.3	16.0	16.3	25.4
6-11	13.9	11.8	16.4	11.0	8.7	8.8	12.0
12-17	7.2	6.3	10.2	7.0	5.4	5.3	9.6
No Kids, Wife 30-44	2.2	3.4	4.2	2.0	2.8	3.3	2.4
No Kids, Wife 45-59	5.5	5.2	10.5	7.5	7.3	7.5	7.0
Formerly Married*,**	16.0	27.0	14.6	19.7	28.1	31.4	15.9
<30, No Kids	0.8	1.0	0.7	0.5	1.1	1.3	0.5
30-44, No Kids	1.8	2.6	2.6	1.5	3.2	4.2	1.5
45-59, No Kids	3.4	4.0	5.1	5.7	8.4	8.1	4.3
AYOC = 0-5	4.5	10.7	2.0	4.6	6.7	8.4	3.8
6-11	3.1	5.5	2.2	4.0	5.0	5.7	2.9
12-17	2.4	3.2	2.0	3.4	3.7	3.7	2.9
Elderly -- Age 60+	14.1	8.2	13.1	29.1	24.6	18.0	21.0
MSP	6.7	3.3	8.4	13.1	8.9	6.7	9.9
Formerly Married	6.3	4.3	4.1	14.5	14.4	10.0	9.1
Single	1.1	0.6	0.6	1.5	1.3	1.3	2.0
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

* Single includes only single persons without children; single persons with children are included with "formerly married."

** Excluding households headed by persons age 60 and over.

*** No own children under 18.

Note: Households are classified by characteristics of "head" of household. For explanation of categories, see text.

SOURCE: Public Use Samples.

TABLE 5. Characteristics of Husband-Wife Families

	Percent Husband-Wife Families with:			
	Children < 6	Children < 18	5 or more members	4 or more own children
White	26.8	55.6	16.0	8.9
Black	32.0	60.2	29.1	17.5
Spanish Surname	43.6	73.8	28.9	21.4
Chinese	33.2	65.9	14.6	9.6
Japanese	26.7	60.7	10.5	6.4
Filipino	42.4	74.2	20.2	15.0
American Indian	39.7	67.2	31.3	21.1
Mexican	46.1	75.6	31.2	23.6
Puerto Rican	45.7	74.9	23.3	17.5
Cuban	29.7	65.2	6.7	4.4
Puerto Rico	37.5	67.5	28.0	18.9

SOURCE: U. S. Bureau of Census, 1973a: Table 3; 1973g: Table 4; 1973h: Table 7; 1973e: Tables 3, 18, 33; 1973f: Table 3; 1973b: Table 54; 1973c: Tables 18, 126.

Table 6. Female Headship Rates and Proportion of Children in Two Parent Families

	Proportion of Families with Female Head	Proportion of Children < 18 Living in Two-Parent Households*	Proportion of Female-Headed Families With Children: < 6	< 18
White	9.0	86.8	17.1	50.8
Black	27.4	57.3	30.8	66.3
Spanish Surname	13.4	80.6	29.4	66.6
Chinese	6.7	90.1	12.5	48.5
Japanese	10.3	89.3	15.4	56.0
Filipino	8.6	83.3	39.1	68.8
American Indian	18.4	68.6	31.6	65.5
Mexican	13.4	80.2	30.5	67.6
Puerto Rican	24.1	66.5	44.4	80.7
Cuban	12.3	83.9	15.6	51.2
Puerto Rico	15.9	74.6	18.1	49.9

*Includes children living with step-parent.

SOURCE: U. S. Bureau of Census, 1973a: Table 3; 1973g: Table 4; 1973h: Table 7; 1973e: Tables 3, 18, 33; 1973f: Table 3; 1973b: Table 54; 1973c: Tables 18, 126.

TABLE 7. Marital Status of Female Family Heads

	Married, Spouse Absent, Other	Widowed	Divorced	Separated	Never Married	TOTAL	N
White	6.0	43.9	26.6	12.0	11.5	100.0	4089
Black	5.0	30.8	15.9	32.0	16.4	100.0	13406
Spanish Surname	7.2	32.5	27.0	21.6	11.7	100.0	1252
Chinese	10.9	50.1	20.3	5.1	13.6	100.0	375
Japanese	17.0	35.7	24.5	7.9	15.0	100.0	826
Filipino	31.2	22.8	20.3	8.4	17.3	100.0	346
American Indian	7.4	36.4	24.4	17.8	13.9	100.0	1677
Mexican	7.5	32.9	25.2	21.4	13.0	100.0	3776
Puerto Rican	5.4	14.3	17.2	48.6	14.5	100.0	2440
Cuban	9.2	26.1	34.5	14.3	15.9	100.0	498
Puerto Rico	13.6	39.1	19.0	18.2	10.1	100.0	902
Southern Rural Black	5.2	48.9	10.1	21.3	14.5	100.0	1512
Southern Urban Black	5.4	34.7	15.5	29.3	15.1	100.0	5112
Non-Southern Black	4.6	23.8	17.5	36.5	17.7	100.0	6782

SOURCE: Public Use Samples.

TABLE 8. Average Number of Persons Age 18 and Over Per Household and Proportion of Households with Three Or More Adults

	Mean Number of Adults			Households with 3 or More Adults*	
	Husband-Wife Family	Other Family	Non-Family Household	All House-holds	Husband-Wife Family
White	2.26	1.85	1.13	16.2	20.1
Black	2.39	1.80	1.16	19.0	26.3
Spanish Surname	2.41	1.88	1.16	23.6	27.4
Japanese	2.45	1.96	1.18	23.4	29.8
Chinese	2.55	2.15	1.31	27.7	33.6
Filipino	2.48	1.98	1.37	24.8	29.9
Indian	2.37	1.86	1.14	19.7	24.4
Mexican	2.42	1.90	1.18	23.9	27.8
Puerto Rican	2.30	1.54	1.14	17.1	22.2
Cuban	2.54	2.04	1.18	29.1	34.3
Puerto Rico	2.60	2.19	1.07	31.0	35.5
S. Rural Blacks	2.54	2.13	1.11	27.3	33.4
S. Urban Blacks	2.38	1.85	1.15	19.0	25.7
Non-South	2.34	1.67	1.17	16.6	24.3

*Persons aged 18 and over

Source: Public Use Samples.

TABLE 9. Presence of Adult Relatives in Husband-Wife Families

	Proportion of All Husband-Wife Families with:		
	Any Related Adult	Own Child Age 18+	Relative Other than Own Child 18+
White	20.8	16.3	6.7
Black	30.4	19.2	17.5
Spanish Surname	29.4	21.6	13.0
Chinese	34.4	25.0	14.2
Japanese	30.1	22.4	12.1
Filipino	31.2	17.8	19.3
American Indian	28.0	18.3	15.4
Mexican	29.8	22.2	12.7
Puerto Rican	24.6	15.4	12.3
Cuban	35.2	18.0	23.4
Puerto Rico	39.2	27.7	20.5
Southern Rural Black	40.1	25.8	25.1
Southern Urban Black	30.2	18.8	17.8
Non-Southern Black	27.2	17.2	14.5

Source: Public Use Samples.

TABLE 10. Percent of Never Married Persons Aged 18-24 Who Are Living in Parental Household

	MALE	FEMALE
White	59.4	62.9
Black	59.8	64.9
Spanish Surname	71.4	78.7
Chinese	52.0	61.2
Japanese	59.9	59.3
Filipino	46.3	48.2
American Indian	53.2	53.5
Mexican	67.6	79.4
Puerto Rican	57.0	71.3
Cuban	71.0	78.0
Puerto Rico	79.2	82.3
Southern Rural Black	81.8	80.1
Southern Urban Black	52.9	59.3
Non-Southern Black	58.3	64.2
If foreign students are excluded:		
Chinese	59.3	67.4
Japanese	63.2	60.5
Filipino	48.6	51.0

SOURCE: Public Use Samples.

TABLE 11. Population Aged 18-24 in Group Quarters

	Percent of Never Married 18-24 Year-Olds In Group Quarters		Percent of Total 18-24: MALE			FEMALE
	MALE	FEMALE	In Armed Forces	In Jails, Prisons	In College Dorms	In College Dorms
White	24.2	19.0	7.4	0.6	8.2	7.6
Black	20.6	8.4	7.0	4.0	3.5	4.1
Spanish Surname	11.3	4.4	4.2	1.2	1.7	1.2
Chinese	23.2	16.0	2.4	0.1	17.3	10.9
Japanese	18.5	14.4	5.1	0.1	8.9	9.1
Filipino	34.8	16.0	25.7	0.5	1.8	3.0
American Indian	26.8	15.1	9.8	3.2	4.3	4.5
Mexican	14.2	4.0	6.1	1.3	1.6	1.0
Puerto Rican	18.8	5.3	8.1	2.0	1.8	0.9
Cuban	11.6	5.8	2.2	0.6	4.4	2.7
Puerto Rico	6.5	4.1	1.7	0.6	0.8	1.0
Southern Black	21.0	11.6	6.2	4.1	3.9	4.9
Non-Southern Black	19.8	7.5	7.8	3.9	3.0	3.3
If foreign students are excluded:						
Chinese	19.8	17.9	3.2	0.1	13.7	8.5
Japanese	17.7	15.3	5.6	0.1	7.9	9.6
Filipino	34.7	18.0	25.8	1.0	1.2	2.9

SOURCE: Public Use Samples.

TABLE 12. Percent of Married Couples, Married Less than Five Years, Living In Own Household

	Percent	N
White	96.2	5,157
Black	90.2	16,447
Spanish Surname	90.6	4,359
Japanese	93.0	488
Chinese	94.4	499
Filipino	86.2	405
American Indian	88.1	695
Mexican	90.5	4,410
Puerto Rican	96.3	1,693
Cuban	93.5	429
Puerto Rico	NA	NA
Southern Rural Black	80.5	1,341
Southern Urban Black	91.8	4,815
Non-Southern Black	90.7	10,291

SOURCE: Public Use Samples

TABLE 13. Living Arrangements of 25-44 Year-Old Separated and Divorced Persons with No Own Children

	MALE			FEMALE		
	% Non-Family Households	Child of Head	Group Quarters	% Non-Family Households	Child of Head	Group Quarters
hite	48.8	24.9	8.7	47.3	17.3	2.8
lack	38.3	18.4	10.9	36.1	16.5	7.7
panish Surname	43.1	26.6	7.5	48.7	23.3	5.0
apanese	59.8	16.1	5.4	62.4	3.7	1.5
hinese	50.6	15.2	2.5	46.3	19.5	7.3
ilipino	33.3	21.9	17.9	42.2	11.1	0.0
merican Indian	27.4	22.3	29.2	34.7	17.4	
exican	34.0	24.4	15.2	26.2	23.5	4.0
uerto Rican	42.6	13.5	12.5	35.2	11.4	1.5
uban	35.1	19.3	4.4	30.9	17.5	2.1
uerto Rico	20.8	48.1	9.4	19.0	35.7	1.2
outhern Rural Black	24.1	36.2	0.0	20.7	36.6	0.0
outhern Urban Black	34.1	21.4	12.0	30.9	20.1	3.7
on-Southern Black	42.8	14.1	11.7	41.5	11.4	3.2

SOURCE: Public Use Samples.

TABLE 14. Living Arrangements of 25-44 Year-Old Separated and Divorced Women with Own Children < 18

	% Family Head	% Living in Parental Household
White	86.9	11.2
Black	89.7	8.1
Spanish Surname	86.7	10.4
Japanese	88.5	6.6
Chinese	87.3	11.1
Filipino	86.8	7.9
American Indian	86.9	11.0
Mexican	87.5	10.2
Puerto Rican	97.4	1.8
Cuban	86.0	9.8
Puerto Rico	72.3	25.2
Southern Rural Black	73.0	22.3
Southern Urban Black	87.6	9.5
Non-Southern Black	93.0	5.2

SOURCE: Public Use Samples